

# Matrix Algebra: Determinants

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## Two-by-two determinant

Let matrix  $A$  be  $2 \times 2$  matrix. Then

$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc.$$

is called the determinant of the  $2 \times 2$  matrix  $A$ .

$A$  is invertible if and only if its determinant is nonzero.

If  $A$  is invertible, the equation  $Ax = b$  has the unique solution  $x = A^{-1}b$ .

If  $A$  is not invertible, then  $Ax = b$  may have no solution or an infinite number of solutions.

When  $\det A = 0$ , we say that the matrix  $A$  is *singular*.

## Three-by-three determinant

It is also straightforward to define the determinant for a  $3 \times 3$  matrix. Let matrix  $A$  be  $3 \times 3$  matrix. Consider the system of equations  $Ax = 0$  and determine the condition for which  $x = 0$  is the only solution:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

We can do the messy algebra of elimination to solve for  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$ , and  $x_3$ , then find that  $x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = 0$  is the only solution when  $\det A = 0$ , where the definition, apart from a constant, is given by

$$\det A = aei + bfg + cdh - ceg - bdi - afh.$$

An easy way to remember we can use the Rule of Sarrus (See details in the next slide).

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$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b & c & a & b \\ d & e & f & d & e \\ g & h & i & g & h \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c & a & b \\ d & e & f & d & e \\ g & h & i & g & h \end{pmatrix}.$$

*Write out the first two columns of the matrix to the right of the third column, giving five columns in a row. Then add the products of the diagonals going from top to bottom and subtract the products of the diagonals going from bottom to top.*

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**Question:** Can the determinant of a  $4 \times 4$  matrix be calculated with the Rule of Sarrus?

**Answer:** Unfortunately, this mnemonic only works for three-by-three matrices.

## Problems

1. Find the determinant of the three-by-three identity matrix.
2. Show that the three-by-three determinant changes sign when the first two rows are interchanged.
3. Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two-by-two matrices. Prove by direct computation that  $\det AB = \det A \det B$ .

# Laplace expansion

There is a way to write the three-by-three determinant that generalizes. It is called a **Laplace expansion** (also called a cofactor expansion or expansion by minors):

$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= aei + bfg + cdh - ceg - bdi - afh = a(ei - fh) - b(di - fg) + c(dh - eg)$$

$$= a \begin{vmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{vmatrix} - b \begin{vmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} + c \begin{vmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{vmatrix} = a \det A_{11} - b \det A_{12} + c \det A_{13},$$

where  $A_{11}$ ,  $A_{12}$  and  $A_{13}$  are obtained from  $A$  by deleting the first row and one of the three columns.

Evidently, the  $3 \times 3$  determinant can be computed from lower-order  $2 \times 2$  determinants, called minors. The rule here for a general  $n \times n$  matrix is that one goes across the first row of the matrix, multiplying each element in the row by the determinant of the matrix obtained by crossing out that element's row and column, and adding the results with alternating signs.



In fact, this expansion in minors can be done across any row or down any column. When the minor  $A_{ij}$  is obtained by deleting the  $i$ th row and  $j$ th column, then the sign of the term is given by  $(-1)^{i+j}$ .

An easy way to remember the signs is to form a checkerboard pattern, exhibited here for the  $3 \times 3$  and  $4 \times 4$  matrices:

$$\begin{pmatrix} + & - & + \\ - & + & - \\ + & - & + \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} + & - & + & - \\ - & + & - & + \\ + & - & + & - \\ - & + & - & + \end{pmatrix}.$$

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**For example:** Compute the determinant of matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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**SOLUTION** Compute  $\det A = a_{11} \det A_{11} - a_{12} \det A_{12} + a_{13} \det A_{13}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \det A &= 1 \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 \\ -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} - 5 \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + 0 \cdot \det \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 1(0 - 2) - 5(0 - 0) + 0(-4 - 0) = -2 \end{aligned}$$



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*For  $n \geq 2$ , the **determinant** of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A = [a_{ij}]$  is the sum of  $n$  terms of the form  $\pm a_{ij} \det A_{1j}$ , with plus and minus signs alternating, where the entries  $a_{11}, a_{12}, \dots, a_{1n}$  are from the first row of  $A$ . In symbols,*

$$\det A = a_{11} \det A_{11} - a_{12} \det A_{12} + \dots + (-1)^{1+n} a_{1n} \det A_{1n}.$$

# Cofactor expansion

Given  $A = [a_{ij}]$ , the  $(i, j)$ -cofactor of  $A$  is the number  $C_{ij}$  given by

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*The determinant of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  can be computed by a cofactor expansion across any row or down any column. The expansion across the  $i$ th row is*

$$\det A = a_{i1}C_{i1} + a_{i2}C_{i2} + \dots + a_{in}C_{in}.$$

*The cofactor expansion down the  $j$ th column is*

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**Note:** If  $A$  is a triangular matrix, then  $\det A$  is the product of the entries on the main diagonal of  $A$ .

# Basic properties of determinants

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- (b) If two rows of  $A$  are interchanged to produce  $B$ , then  $\det B = -\det A$ .*
- (b) If one row of  $A$  is multiplied by  $k$  to produce  $B$ , then  $\det B = k \det A$*

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## Theorem

*If  $A$  is an  $n \times n$  matrix, then  $\det A^T = \det A$ .*

Example:

Compute  $\det A$ , where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -4 & 2 \\ -2 & 8 & -9 \\ -1 & 7 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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**SOLUTION** The strategy is to reduce  $A$  to echelon form and then to use the fact that the determinant of a triangular matrix is the product of the diagonal entries. The first two row replacements in column 1 do not change the determinant:

$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -4 & 2 \\ -2 & 8 & -9 \\ -1 & 7 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -4 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -5 \\ -1 & 7 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -4 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -5 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$$

An interchange of rows 2 and 3 reverses the sign of the determinant, so

$$\det A = - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -4 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -5 \end{vmatrix} = -(1)(3)(-5) = 15$$

A common use of Theorem 3(c) in hand calculations is to *factor out a common multiple of one row* of a matrix. For instance,

$$\begin{vmatrix} * & * & * \\ 5k & -2k & 3k \\ * & * & * \end{vmatrix} = k \begin{vmatrix} * & * & * \\ 5 & -2 & 3 \\ * & * & * \end{vmatrix}$$

where the starred entries are unchanged. We use this step in the next example.

# The main theorem

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} \blacksquare & * & * & * \\ 0 & \blacksquare & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & \blacksquare & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \blacksquare \end{bmatrix} \quad \det U \neq 0$$
$$U = \begin{bmatrix} \blacksquare & * & * & * \\ 0 & \blacksquare & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \blacksquare \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \det U = 0$$

FIGURE 1

Typical echelon forms of square matrices.

Suppose a square matrix  $A$  has been reduced to an echelon form  $U$  by row replacements and row interchanges. (This is always possible. See the row reduction algorithm in Section 1.2.) If there are  $r$  interchanges, then Theorem 3 shows that

$$\det A = (-1)^r \det U$$

Since  $U$  is in echelon form, it is triangular, and so  $\det U$  is the product of the diagonal entries  $u_{11}, \dots, u_{nn}$ . If  $A$  is invertible, the entries  $u_{ii}$  are all pivots (because  $A \sim I_n$  and the  $u_{ii}$  have not been scaled to 1's). Otherwise, at least  $u_{nn}$  is zero, and the product  $u_{11} \cdots u_{nn}$  is zero. See Figure 1. Thus

$$\det A = \begin{cases} (-1)^r \cdot \left( \text{product of} \right. \\ \quad \left. \text{pivots in } U \right) & \text{when } A \text{ is invertible} \\ 0 & \text{when } A \text{ is not invertible} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

It is interesting to note that although the echelon form  $U$  described above is not unique (because it is not completely row reduced), and the pivots are not unique, the *product of the pivots* is unique, except for a possible minus sign.

Formula (1) not only gives a concrete interpretation of  $\det A$  but also proves the main theorem of this section:

## Theorem

*A square matrix  $A$  is invertible if and only if  $\det A \neq 0$ .*

This theorem adds the statement  $\det A \neq 0$  to the Invertible Matrix Theorem.



## Theorem (Multiplicative property)

*If  $A$  and  $B$  are  $n \times n$  matrices, then  $\det(AB) = \det A \cdot \det B$ .*

# Determinants and Matrix Products

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**Example:** Compute  $\det AB$ , where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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### SOLUTION

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 25 & 20 \\ 14 & 13 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\det AB = 25 \cdot 13 - 20 \cdot 14 = 325 - 280 = 45$$

Since  $\det A = 9$  and  $\det B = 5$ ,

$$(\det A)(\det B) = 9 \cdot 5 = 45 = \det AB$$



## A Linearity Property

For an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ , we can consider  $\det A$  as a function of the  $n$  column vectors in  $A$ .

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*The determinant is a linear function of any row, holding all other rows fixed.*

For example:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a + a' & b + b' \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a' & b' \\ c & d \end{vmatrix}.$$

This linearity property of the determinant turns out to have many useful consequences that are studied in more advanced courses.

# Useful properties

- The determinant of the identity matrix is one;
- The determinant changes sign under row interchange;
- The determinant is a linear function of any row, holding all other rows fixed;
- If a matrix has two equal rows, then the determinant is zero;
- If we add  $k$  times row- $i$  to row- $j$ , the determinant doesn't change;
- The determinant of a matrix with a row of zeros is zero;
- A matrix with a zero determinant is not invertible;
- The determinant of a diagonal matrix is the product of the diagonal elements;
- The determinant of an upper or lower triangular matrix is the product of the diagonal elements;
- The determinant of the product of two matrices is equal to the product of the determinants;
- The determinant of the inverse matrix is equal to the reciprocal of the determinant;
- The determinant of the transpose of a matrix is equal to the determinant of the matrix.

# Cramer's Rule


Cramer's rule is needed in a variety of theoretical calculations. For instance, it can be used to study how the solution of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is affected by changes in the entries of  $\mathbf{b}$ .

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For any  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  and any  $\mathbf{b}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , let  $A_i(\mathbf{b})$  be the matrix obtained from  $A$  by replacing column  $i$  by the vector  $\mathbf{b}$ .

$$A_i(\mathbf{b}) = [\mathbf{a}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{b} \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{a}_n]$$

  
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## Theorem (Cramer's Rule)

*Let  $A$  be an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix. For any  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the unique solution  $\mathbf{x}$  of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has entries given by*

$$x_i = \frac{\det A_i(\mathbf{b})}{\det A}.$$

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Use Cramer's rule to solve the system

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**SOLUTION** View the system as  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ . Using the notation introduced above,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ -5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_1(\mathbf{b}) = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -2 \\ 8 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_2(\mathbf{b}) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ -5 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Since  $\det A = 2$ , the system has a unique solution. By Cramer's rule,

$$x_1 = \frac{\det A_1(\mathbf{b})}{\det A} = \frac{24 + 16}{2} = 20$$

$$x_2 = \frac{\det A_2(\mathbf{b})}{\det A} = \frac{24 + 30}{2} = 27$$



# Formula for the inverse matrix

Cramer's rule leads easily to a general formula for the inverse of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ . The  $j$ th column of  $A^{-1}$  is  $\mathbf{x}$  that satisfies  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_j$ , where  $\mathbf{e}_j$  is the  $j$ th column of the identity matrix, and the  $i$ th entry of  $\mathbf{x}$  is the  $(i, j)$ -entry of  $A^{-1}$ .

Let  $A_{ji}$  be the submatrix of  $A$  formed by deleting row  $j$  and column  $i$ . Then

$$\det A_i(\mathbf{e}_j) = (-1)^{i+j} \det A_{ji} = C_{ji},$$

where  $C_{ji}$  is a cofactor of  $A$ .

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$$\{(i, j)\text{-entry of } A^{-1}\} = x_i = \frac{\det A_i(\mathbf{e}_j)}{\det A},$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{21} & \cdots & C_{n1} \\ C_{12} & C_{22} & \cdots & C_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ C_{1n} & C_{2n} & \cdots & C_{nn} \end{bmatrix}.$$

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The matrix of cofactors on the right side of the formula above is called the **adjugate** (or **classical adjoint**) of  $A$ , denoted by  $\text{adj } A$ .

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Cramer's rule leads easily to a general formula for the inverse of an  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$ . The  $j$ th column of  $A^{-1}$  is  $\mathbf{x}$  that satisfies  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{e}_j$ , where  $\mathbf{e}_j$  is the  $j$ th column of the identity matrix, and the  $i$ th entry of  $\mathbf{x}$  is the  $(i, j)$ -entry of  $A^{-1}$ .

Let  $A_{ji}$  be the submatrix of  $A$  formed by deleting row  $j$  and column  $i$ . Then

$$\det A_i(\mathbf{e}_j) = (-1)^{i+j} \det A_{ji} = C_{ji},$$

where  $C_{ji}$  is a cofactor of  $A$ . By Cramer's rule we have

$$\{(i, j)\text{-entry of } A^{-1}\} = x_i = \frac{\det A_i(\mathbf{e}_j)}{\det A},$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{21} & \cdots & C_{n1} \\ C_{12} & C_{22} & \cdots & C_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ C_{1n} & C_{2n} & \cdots & C_{nn} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The matrix of cofactors on the right side of the formula above is called the **adjugate** (or **classical adjoint**) of  $A$ , denoted by  $\text{adj } A$ .

## Theorem (An inverse formula)

Let  $A$  be an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix. Then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \text{adj } A.$$

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR ATTENTION!**